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MELROSE ABBEY.

[South-east View of Melrose Abbey.]

THIS beautiful ruin stands in one of the vales of the Tweed, in the county of Roxburgh, having that river flowing on the north of it, and the Eildon hills looking down upon it from the south. The first abbey of Melrose stood about two miles east from the present, on the same bank of the Tweed, in a peninsula formed by a turn of the river, and terminating in a rocky precipice of some elevation. Hence the name Mail-ross, which in Celtic signifies a naked promontory, or tongue of land. The spot is still occupied by a hamlet called Old Melrose, to distinguish it from the larger village which surrounds the present abbey. This first house was a foundation of great antiquity, having been erected soon after the commencement of the seventh century. It was tenanted by an association of the Culdees, the primitive Christian clergy of Scotland, and is stated by Bede to have become an establishment of great celebrity so early as the year 664. It was here that the famous St. Cuthbert commenced his monastic life, and acquired the reputation which in his old age occasioned his transference to the greater monastery of Lindisfarne. The first monastery of Melrose, however, like all the religious buildings of those times, was probably a very humble edifice, and is said indeed to have been built only of wood. Parts of the foundation of a wall by which it had been surrounded are still to be seen; but no trace is to be discovered of the house itself.

The present abbey was founded in 1136, by King David I., commonly called St. David—"a sore saint for the crown," as he was characterized by his descendant James VI., in allusion to the curtailment of the royal patrimony occasioned by his pious liberality. The new monastery was peopled as soon as finished by an importation of Cistertians from the hive of Rival (or Rivaulx) in Yorkshire—the first of that order of monks which had been seen in Scotland, whence Melrose retained ever after the dignity of the Mother Cistertian Church of that country. It was dedicated to the Virgin in 1146.

The history of this abbey during the four centuries it existed presents very few incidents to distinguish it from that of similar establishments. There is a valuable document, known as the 'Chronicle of Melrose,' being a chronological account of Scottish affairs from 735 to 1270, compiled by the monks, which Thomas Gale has published in the first volume of his *Rerum Anglicarum Scriptores*. From the successive donations of its royal and other benefactors it rapidly rose to great wealth, and that notwithstanding the spoliation which it repeatedly

sustained from incursions of the English, when the two countries were at war. In 1561, immediately before the dissolution, its revenues amounted to £1758 in money, besides large quantities of wheat, bere, meal, oats, poultry, butter, salt, &c. The number of the monks in later times seems to have varied from about eighty to about one hundred.

After the Reformation the monastery and its estates were granted by Queen Mary to the infamous James Hepburn, Earl of Bothwell, whom she afterwards married. On his forfeiture they were bestowed upon James Douglas, a brother of the Earl of Morton; and they subsequently passed through various possessors, till they were purchased, in the course of the last century, by the family of Buccleugh, to whom they now belong. Douglas pulled down a part of the abbey, and with the materials erected a mansion in the vicinity, which is still standing. It is probable, however, that the building suffered considerably before this in the tumults by which the reformation in Scotland was attended. It is said to have received much additional injury from a popular attack upon it, as a monument of popery and episcopacy, in 1649. On this occasion many of the statues, or *images*, as they would be called, with which it was adorned, were broken to pieces; and indeed the tradition is, that the work of demolition was put an end to by a fright which the mob received from an accident which befel one of them, while levelling a blow at a figure of the Virgin. It appears at any rate that many of the statues which are now gone were in existence long after this time, as may be seen by an engraving of the abbey given in the first edition of Slezer's Theatrum Scotiæ, published in 1693.

The church had been in the form of a cross, and the ruins which still remain consist principally of the southern transept, a portion of the square tower which rose over the centre of the building, and the portion of the body of the church, including the choir and part of the nave, to the east of the tower. The roof has nearly all fallen in. Still, even in this state of decay and desolation, the pile remains a monument of architectural taste and skill of almost unrivalled beauty. "Mailross," writes the eminent antiquary Francis Drake, in a letter to Roger Gale, dated 14th July, 1742, "I shall take upon me to say, has been the most exquisite structure of its kind in either kingdom." Mr. Hutchinson, in his View of Northumberland (2 vols. 4to. 1778), from whose account of Melrose the notices that have since appeared have been chiefly borrowed, expresses himself in terms of equally fervent admiration. Speaking of the ornamental work on the door which had led from the northern transept to the cloister, he says, "The fillet of foliage and flowers is of the highest finishing that can be conceived to be executed in freestone, the same being pierced, the flowers and leaves separated from the stone behind, and suspended in a twisted garland. In the mouldings, pinnacle work, and foliage, of the seats which remain of the cloister, I am bold to say there is as great excellence to be found as in any stone work in Europe, for lightness, ease, and disposition. Nature is studied through the whole, and the flowers and plants are represented as accurately as under the pencil. In this fabric there are the finest lessons, and the greatest variety of Gothic ornaments, that the island affords, take all the religious structures together."

The chisel of the sculptor who thus ornamented Melrose has been singularly fortunate in the material upon which it was exercised. "The stone," says Scott, "though it has resisted the weather for so many ages, retains perfect sharpness, so that even the most minute ornaments seem as entire as when newly wrought. In some of the cloisters there are representations of flowers, vegetables, &c. carved in stone, with accuracy and precision so delicate, that we almost distrust our senses, when we consider the difficulty of subjecting so hard a substance to such intricate and exquisite modulation." In the poem to which this note is appended, the Lay of the last Minstrel, the following lines also occur, descriptive of the beauty of these representations and their nice fidelity to nature:—

"Spreading herbs and floweret bright
Glistened with the dew of night;
Nor herb nor floweret glistened there,
But was carved in the cloister arches as fair.

* * * * *

By a steel-clenched postern door
They entered now the chancel tall,
The darkened roof rose high aloof
On pillars, lofty, and light, and small;
The key-stone that locked each ribbed aisle,
Was a fleur-de-lys, or a quatre-feuille;
The corbells were carved grotesque and grim;
And the pillars with clustered shafts so trim,
With base and with capital flourished around,
Seemed bundles of lances which garlands had bound.'

The most superb parts of the ruin are the entry to the southern transept with the window over it, and the great eastern window, both of which are represented in our engraving. Scott thus describes the latter as seen from the interior, by his hero William of Deloraine, and his guide "the Monk of St. Mary's aisle:"—

"The moon on the east oriel shone,
Through slender shafts of shapely stone,
By foliaged tracery combined;
Thou would'st have thought some fairy's hand,
'Twixt poplars straight the osier wand,
In many a freakish knot, had twined;
Then framed a spell, when the work was done,
And changed the willow-wreaths to stone.
The silver light, so pale and faint,
Showed many a prophet, and many a saint,
Whose image on the glass was dyed;
Full in the midst his cross of red
Triumphant Michael brandished,
And trampled the Apostate's pride.
The moonbeam kissed the holy pane,
And threw on the pavement a bloody stain."

According to Hutchinson the entire length of the abbey is 258 feet, and that of the transept 137. What remains of the tower is 75 feet in height, but it appears to have been anciently surmounted by a spire. The character of the architecture proves that very little of the building erected by David I. now remains. The monastery is known to have undergone an extensive restoration during the reign of Robert Bruce in the early part of the fourteenth century; and what we now see is probably the work of that age.

There is no other remnant of antiquity in Scotland which has of late years been so much visited by strangers as Melrose. Since the publication of the Lay of the last Minstrel especially, the fame of the place has been carried wherever our language is known. This general admiration has occasioned a good deal to be done for the preservation of the ruin. Formerly a part of the nave was used as the parish church, and the erections rendered necessary by this appropriation sadly injured the effect of the ancient architecture. A new parish church has lately been built, and the abbey is left to the solitude and silence best becoming its dismantled state, and that of the fallen faith of which it is the monument. The beautiful ruin may now be contemplated without the pensive remembrances which it recalls being broken in upon by any foreign and incongruous associations, as the well-known lines of Scott have described it:—

"If thou would'st view fair Melrose aright,
Go visit it by the pale moonlight;
For the gay beams of lightsome day
Gild, but to flout, the ruins gray.
When the broken arches are black in night,
And each shafted oriel glimmers white;
When the cold light's uncertain shower
Streams on the ruined central tower;
When buttress and buttress, alternately,
Seem framed of ebon and ivory;
When silver edges the imagery,
And the scrolls that teach thee to live and die;

When distant Tweed is heard to rave,
And the owlet to hoot o'er the dead man's grave;
Then go,—but go alone the while—
Then view St. David's ruined pile;
And, home returning, soothly swear,
Was never scene so sad and fair!"

CONFLAGRATIONS OF FORESTS IN SWEDEN.

We extract the following animated passage from Sir Arthur de Capell Brooke's very interesting Travels through Sweden, Norway, and Finmark, to the North Cape:—

"We passed by some extensive tracts of forests consumed by fire, the appearance of which was desolating in the extreme. The beautiful covering of lively green, on which the eye had rested with such pleasure, had disappeared; while around lay scattered in all directions blackened trunks of the withered pines, like fragments of charcoal. Various causes may be said to combine in producing these northern conflagrations; it is not surprising, therefore, that they should so often occur. It is a general practice with the peasants, when they wish to clear a portion of forest that may have been allotted them, to effect it by burning. This not only saves them the infinite labour of removing the thick underwood, and facilitates the progress of the axe, but is of very beneficial consequence to the land, as the ashes form a highly fertilizing manure. It frequently happens, however, from not using proper precautions, or from beginning the operation of burning when the dry season is too far advanced, that they are unable to confine the fire within the intended limits; and it soon spreads itself over a wide tract of country, carrying with it destruction and ruin. Sometimes these extensive conflagrations arise from motives of malice or revenge: and an instance was related to me of a peasant, who applied for a portion of forest to clear and cultivate, which is generally granted; but finding his request refused, irritated by the disappointment, he set it on fire. The whole country, for many miles around, was involved in flames; and a considerable length of time elapsed before it could be stopped. Lightning not unfrequently causes these extensive devastations, falling upon the dry branches of a decayed pine, which it sets on fire, and this communicates quickly to the parched moss beneath. A peasant, after smoking, knocks out the ashes of his pipe; for some hours they lie smothering and concealed; by and by the rising breeze fans them into life and flame, and the work of destruction is begun. Running through the moss, as dry and inflammable as tinder, the flame meets with a pine, and quick as lightning ascends it, assisted by the resinous juices of the tree. In this manner it spreads rapidly through the whole forest, which, crackling amid flame and smoke, presents a spectacle terrific and imposing. The distant traveller, ignorant of the cause, sees with astonishment the singular red appearance of the horizon; and should he unfortunately have to pass through the burning forest, he will find it very difficult to avoid its fury. Surrounded on all sides by falling trees, his path concealed by smoke and flame, he stands bewildered, uncertain whether to advance or retreat. If a breeze arise, the whole forest glows; a thousand loud explosions are heard around; and should the gently refreshing shower descend, a loud hissing is heard, a dense smoke creeps along, and the smothering flames are for the moment repressed, only to burst out afresh with greater fury. The tenants of the forest, driven from their wild haunts, hitherto undisturbed, flee before their irresistible enemy into parts before secure from their attacks; and bears and wolves, forced from their accustomed retreats toward the habitations of man, make desperate attacks upon the cattle of the peasants. Few spectacles can be conceived more fearfully sublime than a conflagration of this kind in uninhabited parts of the North, to one who witnesses from the mountain top the progress of the flames, and the alteration so quickly made on the smiling face of nature, at the approach of the destroying element."—p. 41, &c.

Farther north than the country referred to by our English traveller, i. e. in Lulea Lapland, the great Swedish naturalist, Linnæus, of whom we gave some account in No. 72 of our Magazine, had a narrow escape for his life from one of these forests set on fire by lightning. This happened in a season of remarkable drought. "I traversed," says he, "a space three quarters of a mile in extent (about four miles and a half English), which was entirely burnt; so that Flora, instead of appearing in her gay and verdant attire, was in deep sable; a spectacle more abhorrent to my feelings than to see her clad in the white livery of winter; for this, though it destroys the herbage, leaves the roots in safety, which the fire does not. The fire seemed nearly extinguished in most of the spots we visited, except in ant-hills and dry trunks of trees. After we had travelled about half a quarter of a mile (Swedish), across one of these scenes of desolation, the wind began to blow with rather more force than it had previously done; upon which a sudden noise arose in the half-burnt forest, *such as I can only compare to what may be imagined among a large army attacked by an enemy.* We knew not whither to turn our steps; the smoke would not suffer us to remain where we were, and we durst not turn back. It seemed best to hasten forward in hopes of speedily reaching the outskirts of the wood, but in this we were disappointed. We ran as fast as we could, in order to avoid being crushed by the falling trees, some of which threatened us every minute. Sometimes the fall of a large trunk was so sudden, that we stood aghast, not knowing which way to turn to escape destruction, and throwing ourselves entirely on the protection of Providence. *In one instance a large tree fell exactly between me and my guide, who walked not more than a fathom from me; but, thanks to God! we both escaped in safety.* We were not a little rejoiced when this perilous adventure terminated, for we had felt all the while like a couple of outlaws in momentary fear of surprise."—*Laechesis Lapponica.*

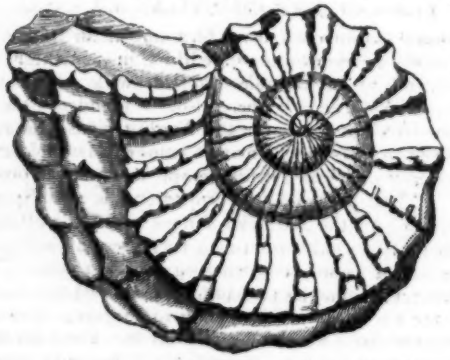
Bear-Hunting in Sweden and Norway.—At Haga (near the frontiers of Norway), we first heard great complaints of the bears in the neighbouring forests, and of the ravages they had made among the cattle. A fortnight before, three had been killed by the peasantry, which they described as being as large as the small horses that drew our vehicle, and of the black species. For the purpose of destroying them, the peasants assemble in large numbers, and extending themselves in a line, beat through the part of the forest where they are supposed to be, uttering at the same time loud shouts, and firing occasionally their guns. The bears being thus disturbed assemble together, sometimes to the number of twenty, and the hunters then collecting their forces surround them and commence a general fire upon the foe. This kind of hunting is attended to those who pursue it singly with considerable danger; as if the first shot miss, or any other part than the head be wounded, the enraged animal rushes upon the aggressor, whose only dependence must then be upon his own speed, though by retreating quickly behind a tree, if he have sufficient agility, he may have a chance of escaping. In Norway, however, as well as in the northern parts of Sweden, the peasant undaunted goes thus in pursuit of the bear unattended, relying upon his own skill and activity, and generally returns triumphant. Sometimes he takes along with him two or three small dogs, which when the bear is found by barking around him, divert his attention from the hunter who is thus enabled to get a certain shot. In this manner a peasant in the neighbourhood of Kongsvinger in Norway, who was celebrated for his address in this kind of hunting, had in a very short time destroyed six of these animals. An instance of singular courage took place the preceding winter at Haga, in a peasant who searching for his cow found a large bear making a repast on her. Unterrified, though armed only with his hatchet, he without hesitation attacked it, and had the good fortune to come off victorious without sustaining any injury.—*Sir Arthur de Capell Brooke's Travels in Sweden, &c.*

MINERAL KINGDOM.—SECTION 10.

ORGANIC REMAINS.

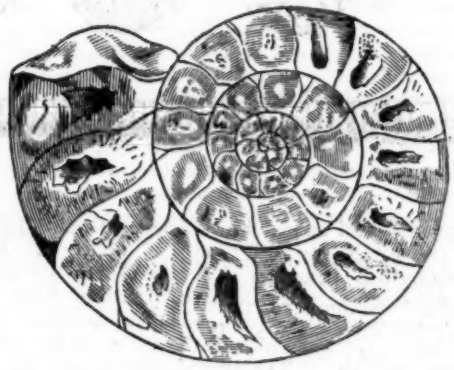
IT will be in the recollection of our readers, that in giving these geological sketches we set out with no other intention than that of laying before them a condensed view of the great leading facts connected with the structure of the earth's crust, as an introduction necessary to the right understanding of the articles we propose to insert from time to time, on the great mineral productions which belong to the business of common life. The introductory matter has grown under our hand beyond what we at first contemplated it would extend to, but we should leave it too imperfect unless we said somewhat more on the subject of organic remains. We shall, however, limit ourselves to a few important facts connected with the great classes of fossil organized bodies.

We have said that shells are by far the most numerous class of fossils: they are found in all formations, from the lowest stratum in which animal remains have been seen, to the most recent deposit now in progress. To a person who has made conchology (or the science of shells) a special object of study, there are many striking differences between those found in a fossil state and such as now exist in our seas, lakes, and rivers; but were we to describe or give representations of even remarkable fossil shells, a general reader would discover in most of them nothing so peculiar as to arrest his attention. There is, however, one which is so different from any thing now living, and of such common occurrence in a fossil state, that we are induced to give it as a good example of an extinct genus. It is called the Ammonite, formerly the *Cornu Ammonis*, that is, the horn of Ammon, from its resemblance to those horns which are affixed to the head of the statues of Jupiter Ammon.



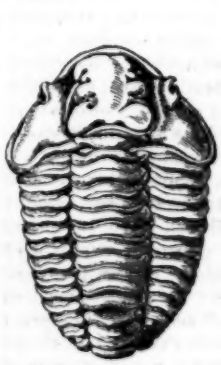
(Fig. A.)

Fig. A is a representation of the exterior of one of the numerous species of which this genus is composed. These shells are found of all sizes, from that of a few lines to nearly four feet in diameter, and above three hundred different species are said to have been observed. When the shell is slit, it exhibits the appearance represented by the following fig. B, for it is usually filled with stony matter, and often with transparent sparry crystals. It consists of a series of small chambers or cells arranged in a form like a coiled snake, the different cells having apparently a communication with each other by a small tube or canal which runs near the outward margin of the coil. It is supposed that the animal first inhabited the innermost cell, that as it grew it formed larger and larger cells for itself, keeping up the communication with the former one. It is conceived, too, that the animal had the power of filling or emptying these cells, so as to regulate its motion in the water, filling them when it wanted to occupy the depths of the sea, and emptying them when it wished to make itself lighter in order to rise to the surface. The living shell to which it has the nearest resemblance is the nautilus. This remarkable fossil is found in all the stratified rocks from the Mountain Limestone (see Diagram, Sec. 2, p. 21, O.) to the uppermost of the secondary strata. It thus continued to be reproduced through many succeeding ages, long after other genera, its first cotemporaries, had become extinct; but it also in its turn ceased to exist, at the period when the tertiary strata began to be formed. The shell is so extremely thin, and so brittle, that it is rare to find perfect specimens, unless when preserved by being incased in hard stone.

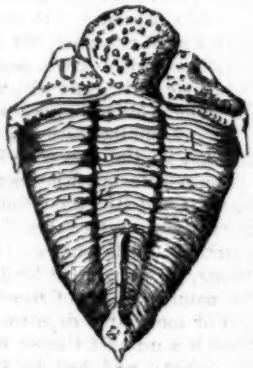


(Fig. B.)

There are some *genera* of shells in the lowest strata containing animal remains, which are also found inhabiting our present seas; but there is not a single *species* of any of the genera of shells found in the whole range of the *secondary* strata that is identical with a living species; all are extinct. In the oldest of the tertiary beds, some shells are found identical with living species, and the proportion of these increases the more recent the deposit, until at last they greatly predominate over the extinct species in the more recent deposits. It is thus evident that there has been an extinction of some genera and species, and a creation of others, in a constant state of progression, from the earliest periods of the earth's history. In the case of fossil shells, as well as other organic remains, a great proportion bear a strong analogy to such as are now only known to inhabit tropical seas.



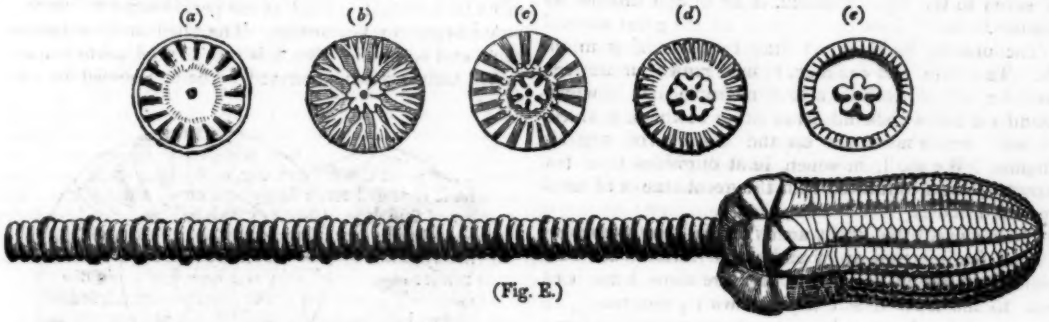
(Fig. C.)



(Fig. D.)

Figures C and D are specimens of two species of a crustaceous marine animal, which has been wholly extinct from an early period in the formation of the crust of the globe; myriads of ages may have elapsed since it ceased to exist. It has not been found in any rock lying above the Mountain Limestone, and that rock is so low in the series of the strata that the earth must have undergone many successive revolutions, each separated by an interval of vast duration, since the time

when these animals were inhabitants of the sea. There are several species of the animal, which has been called TRILOBITE, from the body being composed of three longitudinal divisions or lobes. It was first brought under the notice of naturalists by the name of the Dudley Fossil, being found very frequently in the limestone near the town of that name in Worcestershire, not far from Birmingham; but it is also found in other parts of England, in Germany, and Sweden, and specimens have been brought from North America. It is met with in some spots in such immense quantities that it must have had prodigious powers of multiplication. In some parts of Wales the slate is so full of fragments of the animal that millions must have swarmed on the spot.



(Fig. E.)

Another fossil animal which is very peculiar in its form is that represented in fig. E, called the Lily Encrinite. It resembles that flower upon its stalk, and still more so when the several parts of which the flower-like extremity is composed, are separated and spread out; specimens of it in this state are not unfrequently met with. The animal lived in the base of the flower, and the separable parts stretched out like arms to seize its prey. It was fixed to the ground by the other extremity of the stalk. That stalk is not a single piece, but consists of a number of distinct joints like those of the back-bone, or like a necklace of beads, on which account the fossil has been sometimes called *Encrinites Moniliformis*, or Necklace-form Encrinite. The stalk is perforated through its whole length, and the joints when separated have figured surfaces, such as are represented above in the circular bodies *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, the figure being different at different parts of the stalk. This *family* of radiated animals, which consists of many extinct genera and species, has not wholly disappeared like the trilobite and ammonite; living representatives of it are still found in the seas of the West Indies, and a very perfect specimen may be seen in the Museum of the Geological Society: but the lily encrinite, that branch of the family, is not only wholly extinct, but has been so ever since the period when the New Red Sandstone was deposited. It appears to have had comparatively a short existence, for it has only been found in a limestone which occurs associated with the New Red Sandstone. It is met with abundantly in that particular limestone which occupies a great extent of country in Germany, but the fossil has never been seen in England, and that kind of limestone is not found in our island.

The remains of fishes occur in almost every stratum, from the Old Red Sandstone up to the most recent deposits of fresh-water lakes. Fossil fish have been less accurately made out, as to the genera to which they belong, than any other kind of animal remains, because the natural history of fishes is not so far advanced as that of most other departments of zoology. The great French naturalist Cuvier began an extensive work on the subject, and had he lived much would have been done, for his master-genius threw light on every thing he touched. One of the most celebrated places for fossil fish is a hill near Verona in Italy, called Monte Bolca; immense quantities have been found there in a very perfect state of preservation, as far as the form is concerned, but, as in most other cases, quite flattened and thin, so that they are like a painting or engraving of a fish. These impressions are of rare occurrence in comparison with the quantity of separate bones that are found in most strata: teeth of the shark are frequently met with, and sometimes of a size which must have belonged to individuals of giant dimensions, such as are not now seen in any seas.

By far the most remarkable fossil remains of extinct marine animals are certain species which resemble the crocodile and alligator, and often of a magnitude which these never reach; but we must defer to another section what we have to say respecting these extraordinary creatures, which were inhabitants of our planet at a period of its history when the climate of the sea that covered the deposits now forming the cliffs of Lyme Regis, in Dorsetshire, was as hot as the West Indies.

THE ANGLO-CHINESE KALENDAR FOR THE YEAR OF THE CHRISTIAN ERA 1833.

WE have before us a copy of a publication, with the above title, bearing to be printed in China, at the Albion press, and to be on sale "at Markwick and Lane's, Canton and Macao;" "where also," it is added, "may be obtained, A Companion to the Anglo-Chinese Kalendar for 1832; containing various commercial and other tables, many of which continue applicable to the present time." The price of the Companion is one Spanish dollar, that of the Kalendar half as much, or 50 cents. We regard this production as a very great curiosity, and as one of the most interesting signs of the times. The printing press may be said to take a decided part in the regulation of human affairs, when it begins to throw off newspapers and almanacs. Up to this point literature is the luxury of a few; thenceforth it becomes a necessary of life to all, and exercises the power appertaining to that character. The present is, over all the globe, the age of this its new and more mighty manifestation. It is some years since a newspaper, printed partly in the native tongue of the tribe, was established among the Cherokees of North America. There is more than one newspaper now published in the popular dialect of India. Even the Turks now have their printed newspaper. And here we have an Almanac and Companion printed in China, where, we believe, an English newspaper has also been for some time published. This country, indeed, is the native land of the art of printing, which was practised here many centuries before it was known in Europe; but yet, all circumstances considered, the appearance of an English Almanac from the press of Canton is perhaps more remarkable than any of the other novelties we have mentioned.

The Anglo-Chinese Kalendar commences by some introductory remarks on the Chinese year, which is lunisolar, that is to say, is regulated by the motions of the moon, but is accommodated also, in a rude and imperfect

way, to that of the sun, by the insertion, or intercalation, as it is called, of an occasional thirteenth month, when requisite. The year 1833 of our reckoning corresponds to the Chinese year *Kwei-sze*, or the thirtieth of the 75th cycle of sixty, which commenced on the 20th of February, and is the thirteenth of the reigning Emperor Taoukwang. The Chinese week consists, like our own, of seven days, one of which is kept as a holiday or sabbath.

The present Kalendar is drawn up according to the European form, and contains, besides notices of anniversaries, a list of festivals and remarkable days, comprehending most of those observed either in China or Christendom. Some notes are appended, explanatory of the Chinese festivals, from which we shall give one or two extracts. The following is the note on the festival of Spring, or the Leih chun term-day, being the 15th day of the 12th moon, which this year fell on the 4th of February: "This day, the period of the sun's reaching the 15th degree in Aquarius, is one of the chief days of the Chinese Kalendar, and is celebrated with great pomp, as well by the government as by the people. In every capital city there are made, at this period, two clay images, of a man and a buffalo. The day previous to the festival, the chefoo, or chief city-magistrate, goes out to *ying chun*, meet spring; on which occasion children are carried about on men's shoulders, each vying with his neighbour in the gorgeousness and fancifulness of the children's dresses. The following day, being the day of the festival, the chefoo again appears as priest of spring, in which capacity he is, for the day, the first man in the province. Hence the chief officers do not move from home on this day. After the chefoo has struck the buffalo with a whip two or three times, in token of commencing the labours of agriculture, the populace then stone the image till they break it in pieces. The festivities continue ten days."

The 20th of February, as already mentioned, was this year the new-year's day of the Chinese. It is called by them Yuen tan, or "the first morning." "The period of new year," says the Kalendar, "is almost the only time of universal holiday in China. Other times and seasons are regarded only by a few or by particular classes, but the new year is accompanied with a general cessation of business. The officer, the merchant, and the labourer, all equally desist from work, and zealously engage in visiting and feasting,—occasionally making offerings at the temples of those deities whose peculiar aid they wish to implore. Government offices are closed for about ten days before, and twenty days after new year; during which period none but very important business is transacted. On the last evening of the old year, all tradesmen's bills and small debts are paid. This is perhaps the reason why it is called *choo seih*, the evening of dismissal."

We may add the account of the festival of dragon boats, called in Chinese, Twan-woo or Twang-yang; and also Tëen-chung, falling this year on the 22d of June. "On this day many people race backwards and forwards, in long narrow boats, which being variously painted and ornamented so as to resemble dragons, are called *lung chuen*, 'dragon boats.' From the narrowness of the boats, and the number of persons on board, there being sometimes from sixty to eighty oars, or rather paddles, it frequently happens that several of the boats break in two; so that the festivities seldom conclude without loss of several lives. Tradesmen's accounts are cleared off at this period."

The Chinese, we find, have their immortal Francis Moore as well as ourselves. The 5th of July, being the eighteenth day of the fifth moon, is the birth-day of the astronomer Chang, of whom the following account is given: "This individual, who formerly superintended the making of the Chinese Kalendar, is supposed still to exist, and to predict eclipses, and other astronomical, as well as astrological phenomena."

The most interesting part of this Kalendar, however, is its account of the Chinese seasons, given in the form of notices at the head of each month. It may be presumed that, prepared as they are in the country to which they refer, the correctness of these descriptions may be depended on; and we shall therefore give the whole.

"January.—The weather, during the month of January is dry, cold, and bracing; differing but little, if at all, from the two preceding months, November and December. The wind blows generally from the north, occasionally inclining to north-east or north-west. Any change to south causes considerable variation in the temperature of the atmosphere.

February.—During this month the thermometer continues low; but the dry bracing cold of the three preceding months is changed for a damp and chilly atmosphere. The number of fine days is much diminished, and cloudy or foggy days are of more frequent recurrence in February and March than in any other months. At Macao the fog is often so dense as to render objects invisible at a very few yards distance.

March.—The weather in the month of March is also damp and foggy, but the temperature of the atmosphere becomes considerably warmer. To preserve things from damp it is requisite to continue the use of fires and closed rooms, which the heat of the atmosphere renders very unpleasant. From this month the thermometer increases in height until July and August, when the heat is at its maximum.

April.—The thick fogs which begin to disappear toward the close of March are in April seldom if ever seen. The atmosphere however continues damp, and rainy days are not unfrequent. At the same time the thermometer gradually rises, the nearer approach of the sun rendering its heat more perceptible. In this and the following summer months south-easterly winds generally prevail.

May.—In this month summer is fully set in, and the heat, particularly in Canton, is often oppressive; the more so from the closeness of the atmosphere, the winds being usually light and variable. This is the most rainy month in the year, averaging fifteen days and a half of heavy rain; cloudy days without rain are however of unfrequent occurrence; and one half of the month averages fair sunny weather.

June.—June is also a very wet month, though, on an average, the number of rainy days is less than in the other summer months. The thermometer in this month rises several degrees higher than in May, and falls but little at night. It is this circumstance, chiefly, which occasions the exhaustion often felt in this country from the heat of summer.

July.—This month is the hottest in the year, the thermometer averaging eighty-eight in the shade at noon, both at Canton and Macao. It is likewise subject to frequent heavy showers of rain; and, as is also the month of August, to storms of thunder and lightning. The winds blow almost unintermittingly from south-east or south.

August.—In this month the heat is generally as oppressive, and often more so than in July, although the thermometer usually stands lower. Towards the close of the month the summer begins to break up, the wind occasionally veering from south-east to north and north-west. Typhons seldom occur earlier than this month, or later than the end of September.

September.—In this month the monsoon is entirely broken up, and northerly winds begin to blow, but with little alleviation of heat. This is the period most exposed to the description of hurricanes called Typhons, the range of which extends southwards, over about one-half of the Chinese sea, but not far northward. They are most severe in the Gulf of Tonquin.

October.—Northerly winds prevail throughout the month of October, occasionally veering to north-east or north-west; but the temperature of the atmosphere is neither so cold nor so dry as in the following months. Neither does the northerly wind blow so constantly, a few days of southerly wind frequently intervening. The winter usually sets in with three or four days of drizzling rain.

November.—This month and the following are the pleasantest in the year, to the feelings, at least, of persons from more northern climes. Though the thermometer is not often below forty, and seldom so low as thirty, the cold of the Chinese winter is often intense. Ice sometimes forms about one-eighth of an inch thick, but this is usually in December or January.

DECEMBER.—The months of December and January are remarkably free from rain; the average fall in each month being under one inch, and the average number of rainy days being only three and a half. On the whole, the climate of Canton, but more especially of Macao, may be considered very superior to that of most other places situated between the tropics."

The following Table presents a view of the range of the Thermometer at Canton:—

	Average, Noon.	Average, Night.	Highest.	Lowest.
January	64	50	74	29
February	57	49	78	38
March	72	60	82	44
April	77	68	86	55
May	78	72	88	64
June	85	79	90	74
July	88	81	94	79
August	85	78	90	75
September	83	76	88	70
October	77	69	85	57
November	67	57	80	40
December	62	52	70	45

ON EMIGRATION TO GREECE.

[Concluded from p. 240.]

ACCORDING to the agreement concluded between the Porte and the three Great Powers, the Turks in Eubœa and some parts of Attica have sold or are still selling their estates. Thus many private individuals find themselves proprietors of extensive territories, of which, however, from the causes above-mentioned, vast tracts lie waste, and they consequently derive little profit from lands which, in this country, would be of immense value. They would receive those who have some acquaintance with agriculture most thankfully, and would supply them with land at a very moderate rent. This is not a mere supposition; the writer has been assured of it by many proprietors personally. Rent has been mentioned, although to receive a fixed sum for the use of a certain portion of land has not been customary. The common agreement is still the same which has been alluded to as subsisting between the Turk and his peasant, but is open to so many objections on account of the disadvantages both to landlord and tenant that it will probably soon fall into disuse. The former provides each family on his estate with a cottage, a yoke of oxen, and sufficient seed for one *Zeugari* (literally, yoke, used to designate an extent of from fifty to sixty acres in Eubœa, of one hundred and upwards in Attica and other parts); and the tenant, after collecting the harvest, from which is first deducted the seed for the next year's sowing, divides the remainder into equal parts, one for himself, and one for his landlord. If the tenant finds his own oxen and seed, he only gives one-third of the produce to the landholder. The abuses to which this arrangement is subject are too evident to require pointing out.

It remains to add a few more detailed remarks upon the climate and produce of the country.

The climate, in general, may be said to hold a middle station between the burning heat of Egypt and that of the temperate zone. The air is clear and wholesome, and the sea-breezes, which penetrate into the deep bays that characterize this land, tend greatly to banish that feeling of oppression which usually accompanies heat during the summer months in southern climes. The winter is almost invariably mild, snow being seldom seen except on the summits of the mountains. This season announces its approach during the month of November by casual showers, which become more frequent as it advances. The only period during which any degree of cold is felt is from the latter end of December to the middle of February. Towards the close of the latter month the flowers of spring cover the mountain-side, among which the rich and varied dye of the wild anemone is eminently distinguishable. The almond-tree scatters its silver blossoms to the wind, which are speedily followed by those of the whole tribe of odour-breathing fruit-trees. Still now and then dark clouds roll down from the mountains, and breaking with claps of thunder over the plain and valley, continue to supply the earth with moisture against the coming of summer. In March the peasant sows cotton, cuts his vines, and begins once more to use his plough. The storms occur more rarely, and a smiling, as yet not burning, sun, in a clear sky, calls forth a vegetation which reaches its highest luxuriance and perfection as early as the month of April; the myrtle, the laurel, and the oleander, supplying the place of our northern bushes. Towards the end of April the autumn-sown wheat and barley are in full blossom: from May to the close of October the heavens present one bright expanse of cloudless blue. The heat is great; and after the harvest nature seems to enjoy a perfect repose, the most delicious fruits serving to refresh the inhabitants during this period. In October is the vintage. The island of Eubœa, the writer has been told, is not quite so free from rain during the summer months, which must be a great relief. There are some spots injurious to health, where the air is unwholesome and causes fevers; but this probably arises from the neglect of cultivation, and from the water having been allowed to form morasses. It is to be expected, therefore, that when the causes are removed the effect will cease; yet, of course, it were better that such spots as stand in bad repute should be avoided by the settler. As far as the writer's experience, and the testimony of many who have spent several years in the country can prove, the climate, on the whole, is certainly healthy. At the same time, as it is a great change to an emigrant coming from a northern country, certain precautions are very advisable. Moderation in food and drink, particularly in fruit, and care not to expose the body to cold by a change of temperature, are two rules of especial importance.

The productions of this kingdom are very various. The cultivation of wheat and barley is general, and very successful. Oats are not so common, neither do they prosper so well, for which reason the horses are generally fed with barley. Maize is much valued, particularly as winter fodder for cattle: it grows to a great size, but requires a damp situation, or a spot which is capable of being irrigated. The cotton plant is another common production, which likewise requires much moisture. The chief riches of the country, however, consist in oil, wine, and silk. The fable of Minerva presenting the olive to the Greeks is well known, and certainly it is a gift which cannot be too highly valued, yielding a rich and never-ceasing supply (for this tree, from the immense age it attains, is said never to perish), and requiring but a very small share of labour. Honey is supplied in great abundance, and of the best quality. Rice is partially cultivated, but is inferior in quality to the Egyptian. Oranges and lemons in profusion, as well as fruits of almost every description, arrive at perfection in this genial climate. The potato is little known, but has been tried by a gentleman of the writer's acquaintance in Eubœa, who assured him it was very productive; indeed, nearly every variety of vegetable flourishes, and is plentiful.

The northern part of Eubœa is richly wooded. Among the most common trees are the pine, the oak, the plane-tree, the chesnut, and the walnut. The pine, which seems now to be of use merely on account of the rosin which is obtained by cutting deep notches into the trunk, or as fuel, will, when saw-mills are introduced, when roads are made, and the means of transporting the felled trunks to the sea are provided, become an object of great importance. The planks for the flooring

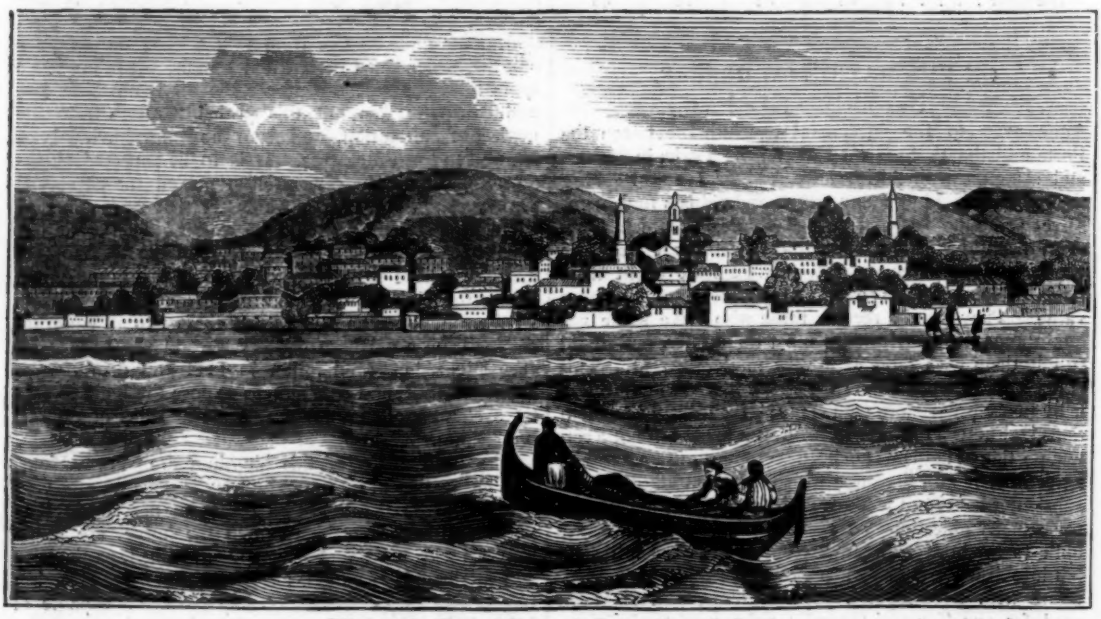
of dwelling-houses are at present brought from Trieste, which of course renders them very expensive. This pine is of a species too which can be used for ship-building; and the distance from Eubœa to the port of Syra, where the greatest part of the Grecian vessels are constructed, is very inconsiderable.

There is very little difficulty in conveying the produce of the soil to a ready market. The sea is nearly every where so accessible, and there are so many hundreds who gain a livelihood by their little vessels, employed in transporting the goods of one island or part of the country to another where they are more wanted, or to some port where they can be embarked in larger vessels for exportation, that as soon as any commodity is known to be for sale, it is soon sought for and carried away. The price of provisions is perhaps about two-thirds cheaper on an average than in England*.

* Milk is scarce—sheep's milk alone is used. Mutton 2*d*. per lb. Bread 3*d*. per loaf, weighing 2½ lbs. Wine 1½*d*. per bottle. Eggs 2*d*. or 3*d*. per dozen. Beef is scarce. Goat's flesh is cheaper, and commonly used by the people. Fruit is exceedingly cheap—grapes less than 1½*d*. per lb.

Undoubtedly such a country as that of which we have here given a faithful picture, offers advantages for emigration; still it must not be supposed that there is not here likewise much to struggle against, especially if the emigrant is entirely without means. In many respects Greece is yet a wild country, and much remains to be done. Roads there are few or none; and the dwellings that may at first be given or raised for new comers, will be found to present accommodations inferior perhaps to those even of the lowest class of cottages in England. The difference of language and of religion is also of course to be considered as among the inconveniences with which the emigrant must lay his account.

As to the opening offered to mechanics, there is no doubt that with the advance of improvement in the country many would find full employment, and be well paid, as the Greeks themselves are nearly ignorant of many branches of industry. There are but very few manufacturers of any description; therefore the emigrant would do well to take with him any articles of household use, such as cloth, linen, knives, &c. &c.



[View of the Town of Egripos in Eubœa, from the Sea.]

A Summer Evening and Night in Sweden.—Evening now closed upon us, unaccompanied however with that dusk so pleasing and grateful to the eye overpowered by the burning glare of the day. The contrast between a summer evening in Sweden and England is sufficiently striking. In the latter, the busy hum of the country gradually subsiding, the barking of the village cur mingled with the noisy gambols of the children upon the green, are borne by the gale upon the listening stranger in the sweet notes of peace and harmony, till the grey vest of night spreads around and closes the scene. In the former, the sun reluctantly quits the horizon at eleven o'clock, his lingering rays even at the hour of midnight throw a streak of crimson light across the heavens, and impart a fiery tinge to the landscape, a dead silence reigns, and creation reposes in the absence of the night. Even in the small hamlets thinly scattered through the immense forests, at a very early hour of evening no traces of inhabitants appear. The ploughman's whistle, the lowing of the herds, and the deep tone of the evening curfew, so enchantingly described by our bard (Gray, in his exquisite and well-known Elegy in a Country Church-yard), are unheard; and not a sound strikes upon the ear, except perchance the distant tone of the lure, blown by some Swedish peasant-boy to collect his wandering cows. The whispering breeze, however, creeping through the dark pine forest, sighs in melancholy accents sweet as the Æolian lyre, and fills the mind with the softest emotions; while the eye, darting between the tall straight trunks rising in quick succession, conjures up amid the surrounding gloom the flitting forms of fancy. Thus for a short time eve's pensive hour glides silently on, undisturbed and unenjoyed by man, who wrapt in sleep thinks only of preparing himself for the toils of the coming day. At one o'clock the animal creation returns to life, and the singing of various birds announces the approach of morn. A deep blush now spreads along the heavens, and shortly afterward the fiery orb of the sun shoots aloft, and gilds the mingled landscape of mountain, lake, and forest, while the rolling mists of night slowly retreat at his presence. Thus, during the fleeting months of a northern summer, the sun in the higher latitudes keeps circling constantly round the horizon, and darkness is unknown. To this unceasing day continued night however soon succeeds; the extreme of heat is followed by that of cold; and in the absence of the meridian sun, the moon, during two of her quarters, rises high in the heavens, never setting; while the increasing brilliancy of the constellations, and the darting fires of the Aurora Borealis, rushing through the firmament, light up the skies, and compensate the inhabitants of those frozen regions for the loss of the day.—*Sir Arthur de Capell Brooke's Travels in Sweden, &c.*

*** The Office of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge is at 59, Lincoln's-Inn Fields.

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